



Highly efficient p-type Cu₃P/n-type g-C₃N₄ photocatalyst through Z-scheme charge transfer route

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ABSTRACT

Phosphides exhibit relatively low overpotential for electrical hydrogen evolution reaction (HER), thus they have great potential to be used for cocatalyst for photocatalyst. Cu₃P, as a p-type semiconductor, tends to form a p-n junction with an n-type photocatalyst. Typically, it is treated as a sensitizer to extend the light absorption. However, its function and work mechanism are not fully understood in the catalyst system. In this report, we synthesized g-C₃N₄ and loaded Cu₃P nanoparticle on its surface. The photoluminescence (PL) spectra, photocurrent and electrochemical impedance spectra confirm the Cu₃P greatly enhance the charge separation process. Electrochemical HER results indicate that the composites have lower over-potential for HER. These results confirm the Cu₃P works as a cocatalyst in the system, not a sensitizer. Further, we tracked the photogenerated electron transfer direction via photodeposition of Pt nanoparticles. The Pt nanoparticles tend to deposit near the Cu₃P nanoparticles. That illustrates the photogenerated electron will be left on Cu₃P nanoparticles. On the other hand, the photocatalytic decomposition of Rhodamine B (RhB) illustrates that the holes are left on the g-C₃N₄ due to both g-C₃N₄ and Cu₃P/g-C₃N₄ have similar decomposition rate, but the Cu₃P cannot decompose RhB. Based on these, we proposed the photogenerated electron of g-C₃N₄ recombine with the hole of Cu₃P, the photogenerated electron of Cu₃P will be left for HER. That reasonably explain the cocatalyst function of Cu₃P in the composite catalyst system.

1. Introduction

Facing the shortage of energy, utilizing infinite solar energy is a possible and promising solution. Photocatalytic water splitting is an environmental friend technique to convert solar energy into hydrogen energy which maintains a clean energy cycle. Thus, photocatalytic H₂ production has become a promising research area since it was reported by Fujishima and Honda in 1972 [1]. Among various semiconductor-based photocatalysts like metal oxides [2,3] (TiO₂ [4], SrTiO₃ [5,6], BiVO₄, [7] BiClO [8,9] etc.), metal sulfides [10] (CdS, ZnCdS, CuInS₂ etc.) and oxynitrides and oxysulfides [11,12], graphite carbon nitride (g-C₃N₄) as a metal-free catalyst exhibit relatively wide light absorption band super stability for H₂ production. However, poor charge separation efficiency and high over-potential for the reduction and oxidation reaction result in a low activity of the catalyst. The cocatalyst is usually loaded onto the surface of semiconductors to accept the photogenerated electron and enhance charge separation. At the same time, hydrogen reduction reaction (HER) happens on the cocatalysts, which lower the over-potential of HER. Based on these two functions, various noble

metals such as Pt, Rh, Pd, Ru, Ag and Au have been employed as an efficient electron sink to promote charge separation because noble metals with large work function, for example, Pt, are ready to accept and trap electrons [13–16]. A Schottky barrier can be formed at the metal/photocatalyst interface. The Schottky barrier is a kind of junction which can promote charge separation of photogenerated electron and hole. The photogenerated electron can be easily transferred from photocatalyst to the noble metal. On the other hand. They possess a relatively low overpotential for hydrogen evolution reaction (HER). Thus, noble metals e.g. Pt, are treated as the most suitable cocatalyst for photocatalytic H₂ production.

However, the high prices of noble metals seriously barrier their practical application. It is highly demanded to look for the replacement. During the past decades, electrochemical water splitting is rapidly developed in the seeking low over-potential electrode materials. A number of materials based on the transition metals (e.g. Fe, Co, Ni, Cu, Mo) have been demonstrated as a promising electrode material for HER due to relatively low over-potential [17]. Some of them have been developed as a robust cocatalyst such as MoS₂ [18], Ni-based materials

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[19–21] and cobalt-based materials [22–24]. Very recently, transition metal phosphides have emerged as low-cost catalysts for water splitting (both HER and OER). In 2013, Chen and coworkers [25,26] first demonstrate the mixture of Ni_2P colloidal nanoparticles and CdS nanorods for constructing photocatalytic system through collision-contact mechanism to promote charge separation [27]. And then, Ni_2P [28,29], CoP [30,31], Fe_2P [32], FeP [33] and NiCoP [34,35] are employed as the cocatalyst for enhanced photocatalytic H_2 evolution. As an n-type semiconductor, these phosphides is favorable to accepting the photo-generated electron. Meanwhile, they also have relatively low over-potential for HER. Thus, the enhanced photocatalytic activity is demonstrated. Cu_3P [32,36] is also loaded on the surface photocatalyst (TiO_2 and CdS) and catalyst composites exhibit enhanced photocatalytic activities. Typically, Cu_3P is treated as p-n junction instead of cocatalyst since Cu_3P is a p-type semiconductor. If so, the photogenerated electron tends to transfer from Cu_3P to TiO_2 . However, TiO_2 exhibit quite low photocatalytic performance in the absence of the cocatalyst. It is worth to investigate the function of Cu_3P and understand the enhancement mechanism of photocatalytic performance.

In this report, we chose the high surface area graphite carbon nitride (g- C_3N_4) as an n-type photocatalyst, successfully loaded the Cu_3P nanoparticles through chemical deposition-phosphorization processes. Photoluminescence spectra (PL), photocurrent and electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) Nyquist plots clearly proved that the charge separation process is greatly enhanced after loading Cu_3P . Electrocatalytic HER was carried out to illustrate that Cu_3P effectively lower the over-potential of g- C_3N_4 for HER reaction, indicating Cu_3P is a potential cocatalyst. If Cu_3P is a cocatalyst, the photogenerated electron will transfer from g- C_3N_4 (n-type) to Cu_3P (p-type). To verify this, the electron flow direction was tracked by photodeposition of Pt nanoparticles. The results disclose that the Pt nanoparticles are photo-deposited besides the Cu_3P nanoparticles, indicating the photo-generated electron will keep at the site of Cu_3P . To understand this phenomenon, we proposed the photogenerated charge transfer follows the direct Z-scheme route. That is, the photogenerated electrons from g- C_3N_4 recombine with the holes of Cu_3P and the photogenerated electrons from Cu_3P will be left for HER. It provides new insights into design and understanding the nanostructure photocatalyst.

2. Experimental section

2.1. Synthesis of the photocatalyst

2.1.1. Preparation of graphitic carbon nitride (g- C_3N_4)

Typically, 20 g of thiourea and 20 g ammonium chloride were ground uniformly and put into a mortar. The mixtures were transferred to an alumina crucible with a cover and heated to 550 °C for 4 h in a muffle furnace at a temperature rate of 1 °C/min. After the reaction was completed, a yellow solid powder was obtained, that was g- C_3N_4 . The thermal treatment of g- C_3N_4 in a corundum porcelain boat. The g- C_3N_4 was put in a muffle furnace and heated to 500 °C for 4 h with a ramp rate of 2 °C/min to complete the reaction. After the reaction was completed, a light yellow solid powder was obtained, which was denoted as g- C_3N_4 nanosheets. The synthesis route of g- C_3N_4 nanosheets shown in Scheme 1.

2.1.2. Preparation of Cu_3P /g- C_3N_4 composite materials

First, the g- C_3N_4 nanosheets sample (200 mg) was dispersed in 50 mL of deionized water and sonicated for 2 h. Then, designed amount of copper chloride in aqueous solution was added in the above solution slowly with a copper loading of 0.5, 1.0, 2.0, or 3.0 wt%. After magnetic stirring for 2 h at room temperature, a certain amount of $\text{NH}_3\cdot\text{H}_2\text{O}$ (0.1 M) aqueous solution was added dropwise according to the copper loading with a molar ratio of $\text{NH}_3\cdot\text{H}_2\text{O}:\text{Cu}^{2+}$ at 2:1 and followed by magnetic stirring for 1 h, the suspension was filtered, washed with deionized water for several times. The obtained solid precursor was

further dried in a vacuum freeze-dried for 24 h. Subsequently, the Cu_3P /g- C_3N_4 composites were synthesized using the above solid precursor as the reactant for phosphorization. In detail, 200 mg of the prepared precursor and 200 mg of $\text{NaH}_2\text{PO}_2\cdot\text{H}_2\text{O}$ were blended mechanically and ground into fine powder. Then, the fine powder was annealed at 300 °C for 3 h in a quartz tube with a heating rate of 2 °C/min under Ar flow. The obtained products were washed with deionized water to remove residual salts, and dried in a vacuum freeze-dried for 24 h.

The pure Cu_3P was also prepared using a similar procedure.

2.1.3. Preparation of 1.0 wt% Pt/g- C_3N_4 composites

First, the g- C_3N_4 nanosheets sample (200 mg) was dispersed in 50 mL of deionized water and sonicated for 2 h. Then, 1.0 wt% Pt was using H_2PtCl_6 dissolved in the solution. After magnetic stirring for 2 h at room temperature, newly prepared of NaBH_4 (0.1 M) aqueous solution was added dropwise according to the platinum loading with a molar ratio of $\text{NaBH}_4:\text{Pt}^{4+}$ at 5:1 and followed by magnetic stirring for 1 h, the suspension was filtered, washed with deionized water for several times. The resultant solid precursor was further dried in a vacuum freeze-dried for 24 h.

2.1.4. Charge flow tracking by photodeposition

Photo-deposition of 0.5 wt% Pt on the surfaces of CC-1.0 were carried out using H_2PtCl_6 as a precursor. Typically, 10 mg of CC-1.0 and a calculated amount of metal precursor were dispersed in 100 mL of 10 vol% methanol aqueous solution under stirring. The suspension was then irradiated by a 300 W Xe lamp with reaction temperature maintained at 5 °C by cycle cooling water equipment. After 2 h photo-deposition, the suspension was filtered, washed with deionized water several times, and finally dried in the oven at 60 °C overnight.

2.2. Photocatalytic activity characterization

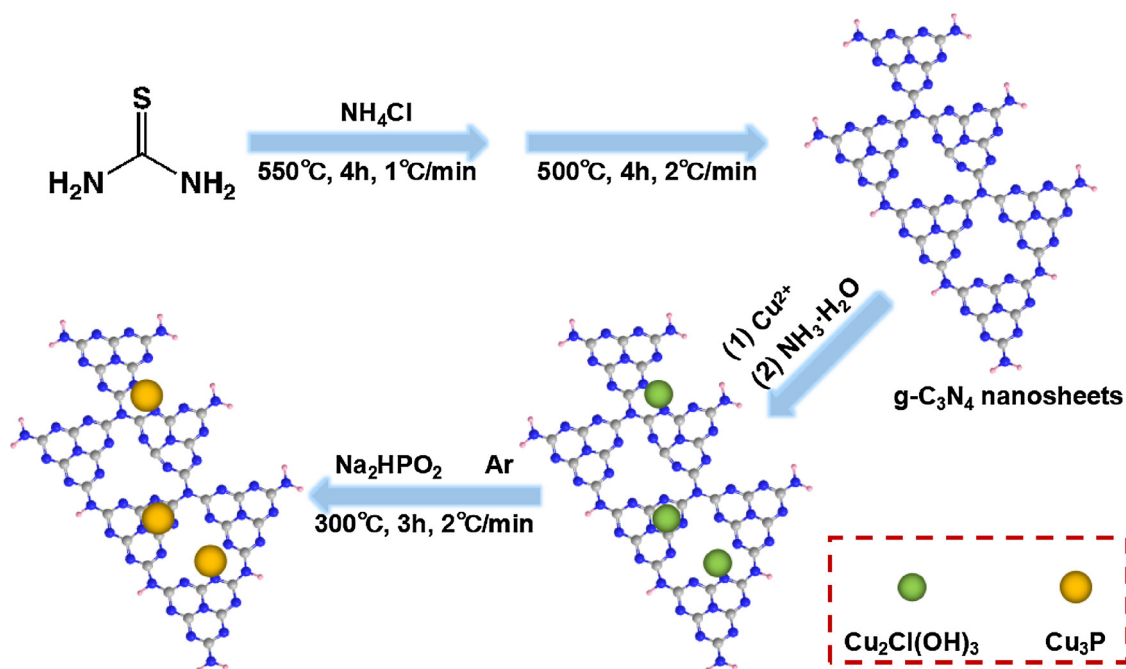
Photocatalytic hydrogen evolution via water-splitting was performed in a closed Pyrex glass reactor. For investigations of photocatalytic performance, the well-ground photocatalyst (10 mg) was suspended in an aqueous solution of TEOA (10 vol%, 100 mL) under vigorous stirring. A 300 W Xe lamp was also utilized as the visible light source for irradiation with a 420 nm cut-off filter for the photocatalytic reactions. The temperature of the reactant solution was maintained at 5 °C by a flow of cycle cooling water system during the reaction. The amount of hydrogen produced was determined by gas chromatography (Shimadzu GC-2014C), using a thermal conductivity detector (TCD) with N_2 as the carrier gas.

The stability test of the as-prepared composite materials (10 mg) of CC-1.0 was operated in the H_2 production system using TEOA (10 vol%, 100 mL) aqueous solution as electron donor.

Wavelength-dependent H_2 evolution measurement was also operated in the H_2 production system with a band-pass filter for 380 nm, 420 nm, 475 nm, 500 nm, respectively. The as-prepared composite materials (10 mg) of CC-1.0 and 1.0 wt% Pt/g- C_3N_4 were operated in the H_2 production system in TEOA (10 vol%, 100 mL) aqueous solution.

2.3. Photoelectrochemical measurements

The photoelectrochemical measurements were conducted with an Autolab PGSTAT302 N in a conventional three-electrode system under visible light assembled by a 300 W Xe lamp with a 420 nm cutoff filter. Ag/AgCl electrode, carbon electrode, and phosphate buffered solution (PBS) (pH = 7.00) were used as the reference electrode, counter electrode, and electrolyte, respectively. To prepare the working electrode, the photocatalyst (4 mg) and 5 wt% Nafion solution (80 μL) were dispersed in isopropyl alcohol (920 μL) and sonicated for at least 1 h to form a homogeneous mixture [37]. Then, the mixture (40 μL) was drop-casted on a 4 cm \times 1 cm FTO (fluorine-doped tin oxide) glass electrode



Scheme 1. Synthesis route of $\text{Cu}_3\text{P}/\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ composites photocatalyst.

and left to dry at room temperature. FTO glass substrates with the coated area about $1 \times 1 \text{ cm}^2$ are used for electrodes.

Cyclic voltammograms (CVs) were recorded between -0.6 and -1.2 V versus Ag/AgCl (saturated KCl) at a scan rate of 100 mV/s . CVs were scanned for 50 cycles. Linear sweep voltammograms (LSVs) were measured from -0.6 to -1.4 V versus Ag/AgCl (saturated KCl) with a scan rate of 5 mV/s . Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) tests were conducted in the same configuration at $\eta = -0.6 \text{ V}$ (vs. RHE) from 10^5 – 10^{-1} Hz with an AC voltage of 20 mV . Transient photocurrents measurement were conducted in the same configuration at $\eta = 0.5 \text{ V}$ versus Ag/AgCl (saturated KCl). Mott-Schottky were recorded between -1.6 and 0.0 V versus Ag/AgCl (saturated KCl). All the potentials were calibrated with the RHE using the equation $E_{\text{vs. RHE}} = E_{\text{vs. Ag/AgCl}} + E_{\text{Ag/AgCl}} + 0.059 \text{ pH}$.

2.4. Characterizations

The crystal structure of the samples was investigated using X-ray diffraction (XRD; Bruker D8 Advance X-ray diffractometer) with $\text{Cu K}\alpha$ radiation ($\lambda = 0.15406 \text{ nm}$) as the incident beam at 40 kV and 40 mA . The morphology of the samples was examined by transmission electron microscopy (TEM; FEI Tecnai G2 F20) operated at 200 kV and Tecnai G2 F30 S-Twin microscope attached with an OXFORD MAX-80 energy dispersive X-ray (EDX) system. Scanning electron microscope (SEM; Hitachi SU-8010) operated at 5 kV . UV–vis diffuse reflection spectroscopy (DRS) was performed on a Shimadzu UV-2600 spectrophotometer using BaSO_4 as the reference. The photoluminescence (PL) spectra of the photocatalyst were obtained by a Hitachi F-7000 with an excitation wavelength of 325 nm . BET specific surface area is measured using a Quantachrome Surface Area and Pore Size Analyzer (Quantachrome Instrument version 3.01). XPS measurements were conducted on a Kratos Axis-Ultra multifunctional X-ray spectrometer. All binding energies were referenced to the $\text{C } 1\text{s}$ peak at 284.8 eV .

3. Results and discussion

Scheme 1 shows synthetic routes of high surface area $\text{Cu}_3\text{P}/\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$. Two-step pyrolysis reaction was taken to prepare $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ nanosheets with high surface area due to the gases were released were released by

decomposing NH_4Cl at high temperature. Furthermore, the porous $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ were thermally treated at 500°C for 4 h to form thin $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ nanosheets. When $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ nanosheets were placed into the CuCl_2 solution, the amino group on the $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ can form complexes with Cu^{2+} . This complexes converted into $\text{Cu}_2\text{Cl}(\text{OH})_3$ nanoparticles when the solution was adjusted to the base by adding the $\text{NH}_3\cdot\text{H}_2\text{O}$ aqueous solution. Furthermore, the $\text{Cu}_2\text{Cl}(\text{OH})_3$ was converted into Cu_3P by thermal treating the mixture of $\text{Cu}_2\text{Cl}(\text{OH})_3/\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ and NaH_2PO_2 at 300°C for 2 h . The obtained $\text{Cu}_3\text{P}/\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ samples were denoted as CC-0.5, 1.0, 2.0, 3.0 with different amount of Cu_3P in the composites, respectively.

Generally, the dense $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ with the low surface area was obtained by pyrolysis of thiourea in the inert environment. The large surface area will generate more active sites and efficient charge separation efficiency. To achieve large surface area, pore forming materials - NH_4Cl was introduced into the reaction. Furthermore, the additional thermal treatment was applied to prepared $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ nanosheets at 500°C in the air. As shown in Fig. S1, scanning electron microscopy (SEM) and transmission electron microscopy (TEM) images clearly show as-prepared $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ exhibits nanosheets morphology, which is kept after loading the $1.0 \text{ wt}\%$ Cu_3P . Fig. 1a illustrates the X-ray diffraction (XRD) pattern of $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ and $\text{Cu}_3\text{P}/\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ (CC-0.5–3.0). The characteristic diffraction peaks of $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ at 13.1° and 27.6° are observed. It is hardly found the diffraction peak in the composites samples due to low loading amount. Pure Cu_3P was prepared in the same synthesis route, which shows feature diffraction peaks of hexagonal Cu_3P (Fig. S2). Fig. 1b shows the N_2 sorption isotherm curves of $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ and CC-1.0 sample. Both of them exhibit type IV isotherms with H3 type hysteresis loop, which is associated with capillary condensation in the mesoporous structure. They do not exhibit any limiting adsorption at high relative pressure, which is observed with aggregates of plate-like particles giving rise to slit-shaped pores [38]. Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) surface area of $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ and CC-1.0 are 91.3 and $87.9 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$, respectively. The corresponding pore size distribution plot is shown as inset of Fig. 1b. The size of mesopore is $\sim 2.7 \text{ nm}$ for both $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ and CC-1.0. These indicate that the loading process of Cu_3P did not change the morphology of $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$.

Fig. 1c–e display transmission electron microscopy (TEM) and high resolution (HR) TEM images of CC-1.0. Cu_3P nanoparticles with the average size of $15.5 \pm 7.1 \text{ nm}$ are uniformly dispersed on the $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$

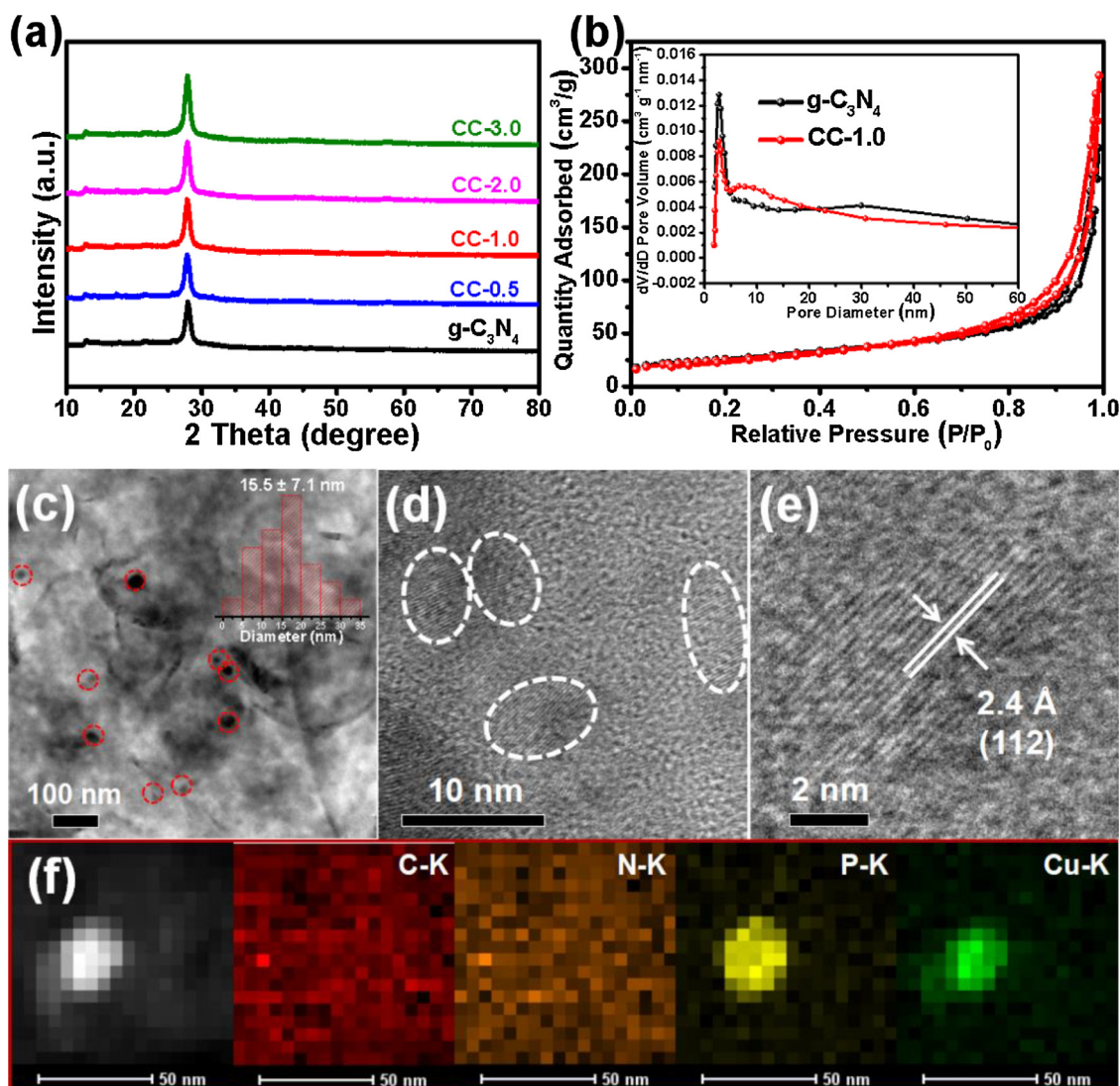


Fig. 1. (a) XRD patterns of pure $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ and different loading amount of Cu_3P on $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ samples (CC-0.5–3.0: 0.5–3.0 wt% $\text{Cu}_3\text{P}/g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$); (b) Nitrogen adsorption-desorption isotherms of the $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ and CC-1.0 samples and the corresponding pore size distribution plot (the inset). Transmission electron microscopy (TEM, c) and high-resolution TEM (d, e) image of $\text{Cu}_3\text{P}/g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ (CC-1.0). (f) TEM image of $\text{Cu}_3\text{P}/g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ and corresponding C, N, P, Cu element mapping.

nanosheets. HR TEM images illustrate the lattice fringe spacing of 0.24 nm corresponding to the (112) lattice fringe of Cu_3P . To further confirm the element composition, EDX elemental mapping images (Fig. 1f) clearly show the distribution of C, N, P and Cu. The C and N elements spread all over the images indicating the matrix is composed of C and N. The P and Cu mainly concentrate at the site of the bright spot in the corresponding TEM image, indicating that the particle is composed of Cu and P.

To further verify the chemical composition and electronic state of the $\text{Cu}_3\text{P}/g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ samples, X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) was conducted. As shown in Fig. S3, the full survey XPS spectrum discloses that CC-1.0 is composed of C (284 eV), N (399 eV), Cu (932) and P (133 eV). High-resolution C 1s, N 1s, Cu 2p and P 2p XPS of CC-1.0 are displayed as Fig. 2. High-resolution C 1s XPS spectrum (Fig. 2a) can be fitted as 4 dominant peaks at 284.6, 286.1, 287.8 and 288.6 eV, corresponding to sp^2 C in $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ (C–C), sp^3 C (C– NH_2), N–C=N and –COOH [39,40]. The peaks at 398.2, 399.3, 400.8, 403.9 eV in N 1s XPS spectrum are assigned to sp^2 hybridized nitrogen (C–N=C), bridging N atoms in tertiary nitrogen N-(C)₃, terminal amino functions (–C–N–H) and positive charge localization or the charging effects in the cyano-group and heterocycles [34,41]. Two peaks at 932.1 and 951.8 eV are contributed from Cu 2p_{3/2} and 2p_{1/2}, respectively, which

are matched with the Cu_3P signal. However, only one weak peak was observed at 132.5 eV in the P 2p XPS spectrum of CC-1.0 due to low loading amount on the $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$. Similar results were observed in the previous reports [36,42]. It was attributed this peak to the P 2p species with partial oxidation because it is hard to distinguish the P 2p_{3/2} and P 2p_{1/2} in the case of less amount of Cu_3P . Based on the above results, Cu_3P nanoparticles are successfully loaded on the surface of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$.

As shown in Fig. 3a and b, the loading of Cu_3P on $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ significantly enhances the photocatalytic H_2 production performance ($\lambda > 420$ nm). With pure $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$, only $10.8 \mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$ can be produced, indicating that most photogenerated charges take recombination route. The H_2 evolution rate can be greatly enhanced to over 60 folds by loading 0.5 wt% Cu_3P nanoparticles to the $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ nanosheets. It reaches maximum $808 \mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$ with 1.0 wt% of Cu_3P loading and then decreases gradually. It probably due to the shielding effect of light absorption by excess Cu_3P on the surface of $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ [43]. For comparison, 1.0 wt% Pt was loaded on $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ via similar chemical (denoted as Pt/ $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$). The H_2 evolution rate only reaches $658 \mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$ for Pt/ $g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$. That indicates the Cu_3P could be a potential replacement for noble Pt. Furthermore, the photocatalytic activity of $\text{Cu}_3\text{P}/g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ exhibits no obvious decrease after four consecutive cycles, indicating $\text{Cu}_3\text{P}/g\text{-C}_3\text{N}_4$ has superior stability. Since Cu_3P is a narrow bandgap

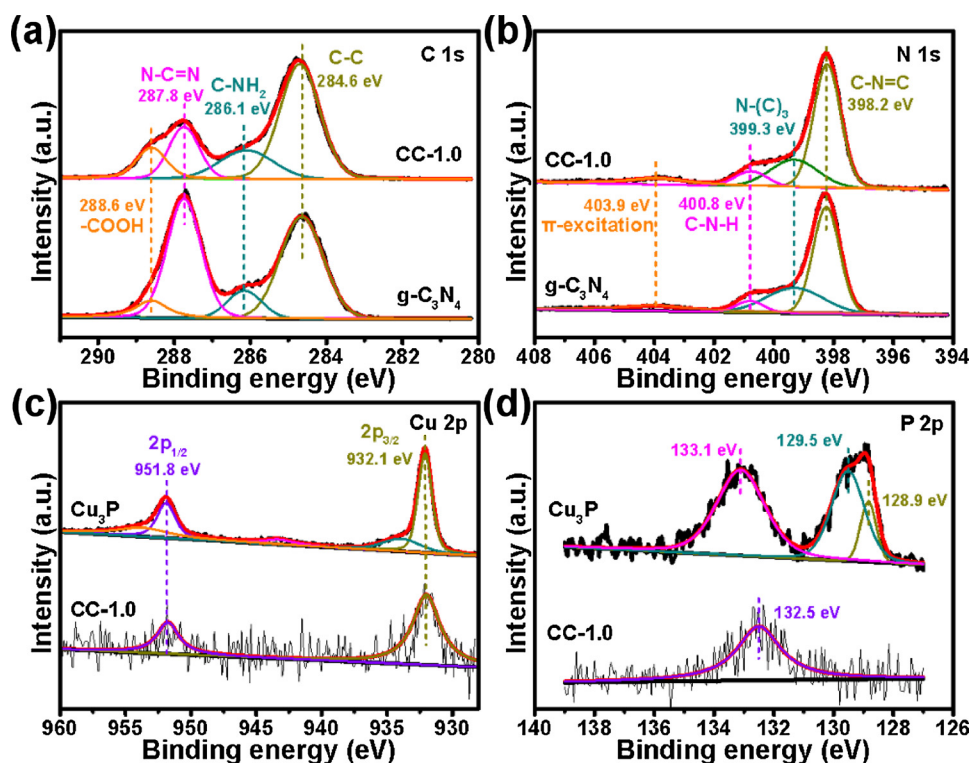


Fig. 2. High resolution C1 s (a), N1 s(b), Cu2p (c) and P2p (d) X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) spectra of g- C_3N_4 , Cu_3P and $\text{Cu}_3\text{P/g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ (CC-1.0).

semiconductor, it may contribute to the light absorption on the catalyst. To verify that, the dependence of H_2 production on the wavelength was investigated for the CC-1.0 and Pt/g- C_3N_4 . As shown in Fig. 3d, both CC-1.0 and Pt/g- C_3N_4 have similar photo response range from UV to 550 nm. However, CC-1.0 exhibits more H_2 production capability at each wavelength. These results indicate that The main contribution of Cu_3P is the enhancement of the charge separation process, not the extension of light absorption.

To further confirm that, photoluminescence (PL) spectra of g- C_3N_4

and $\text{Cu}_3\text{P/g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ are shown in Fig. 4a. The PL intensity of g- C_3N_4 dramatically decreases after loading Cu_3P nanoparticles, indicating that the radiation recombination is greatly depressed due to enhanced charge separation. Fig. 4b illustrates the photocurrent density-time (i-t) curves of the $\text{Cu}_3\text{P/g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ and the g- C_3N_4 working electrode, which are measured 0.5 V vs. Ag/AgCl under visible light irradiation ($\lambda > 420$ nm). It clearly displays that the photocurrent density produced from $\text{Cu}_3\text{P/g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ is much higher than that of g- C_3N_4 , implying a distinct improvement in the suppression of photo-generated electron-

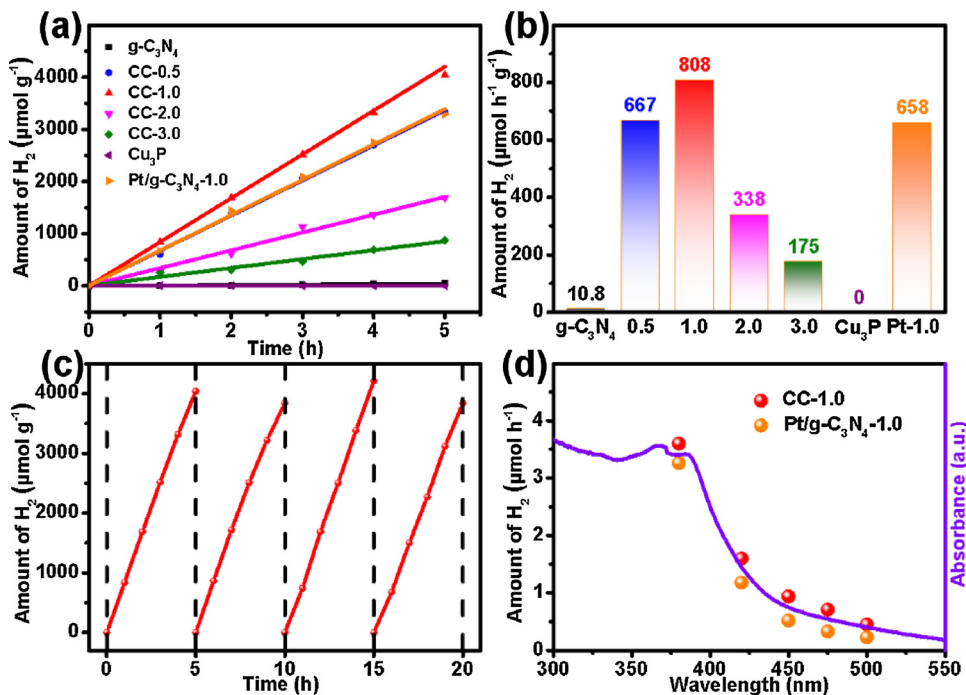


Fig. 3. (a) Normalized H_2 evolution amount-time plots and normalized H_2 evolution rate (b) of g- C_3N_4 , Cu_3P and $\text{Cu}_3\text{P/g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ (CC-0.5 ~ 3.0). Pt/g- C_3N_4 -1.0 and Pt-1.0 are the g- C_3N_4 nanosheets loaded 1.0 wt% Pt nanoparticles. The stability test of CC-1.0 (c), the H_2 production was recorded in the continuous four cycles. (d) the dependence of the H_2 production rate on the wavelength of CC-1.0 (red dots) and chemical deposition of Pt/g- C_3N_4 -1.0 (orange dots), the purple line is the UV-vis spectrum of CC-1.0, corresponding to the right axis.

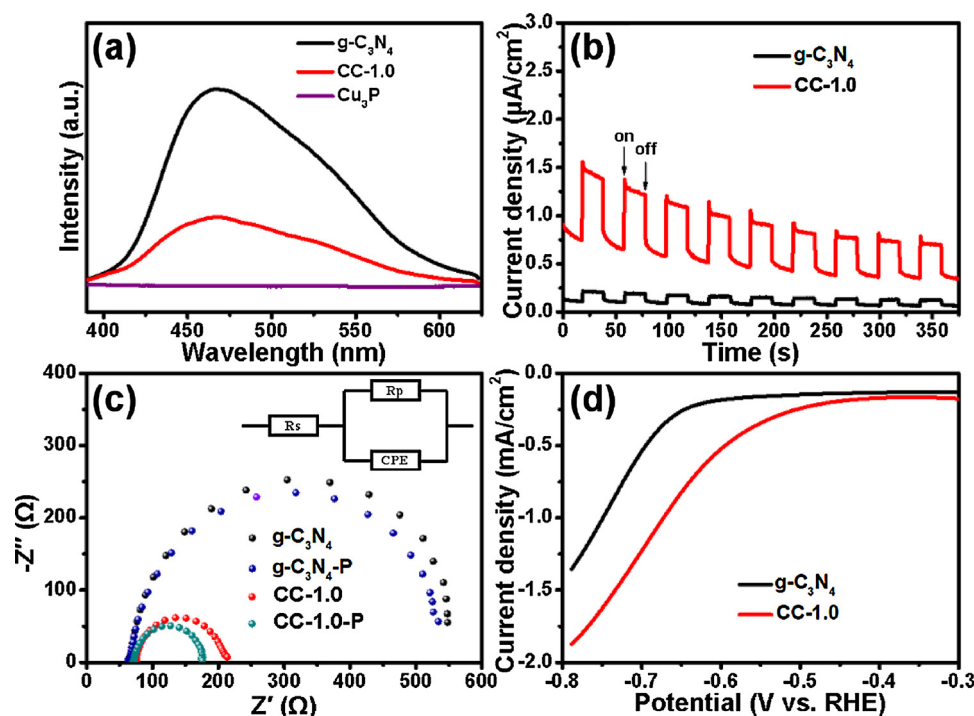


Fig. 4. (a) Photoluminescence spectra of g- C₃N₄, Cu₃P and CC-1.0; (b) current density-time plots of g- C₃N₄ and CC-1.0; (c) Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) of g- C₃N₄ and CC-1.0. -P stands for the measurements were carried out under light illumination; (d) electrochemical HER reaction of g- C₃N₄ and CC-1.0.

hole recombination. That well consists of the PL results. Furthermore, electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) Nyquist plots of g-C₃N₄ and Cu₃P/g-C₃N₄ are displayed in the Fig. 4c. Both g-C₃N₄ and Cu₃P/g-C₃N₄ exhibit semicircles in the middle-frequency region. The arc radius on the Nyquist plot of Cu₃P/g-C₃N₄ is smaller than that of g-C₃N₄, indicating that a slower charge recombination and a more efficient charge separation for the Cu₃P/g-C₃N₄. It should be noted that the arc radius further decreases under photoirradiation. Based on these results, it implies that Cu₃P loading greatly promotes the charge separation process in the catalyst. Another important feature of cocatalyst is lowering the overpotential of HER on the surface of the photocatalyst. According to Sun's report [44,45], nanostructural Cu₃P has lower overpotential for electrocatalytic HER. To gain insight into the water electrolysis activity of Cu₃P/g-C₃N₄ and g-C₃N₄, the electrocatalytic HER were evaluated by using a three-electrode system. Fig. 4d shows the Cu₃P/g-C₃N₄ exhibits higher activity than g-C₃N₄. The starting potentials for HER are -0.65 V vs. RHE and -0.45 V vs. RHE for g-C₃N₄ and Cu₃P/g-C₃N₄, respectively. The current density of -1.0 mA cm⁻² can be achieved at overpotential as low as -0.67 V vs. RHE on Cu₃P/g-C₃N₄, which is smaller than that on pure g-C₃N₄ (-0.75 V vs. RHE). Lower over-potential of Cu₃P/g-C₃N₄ demonstrate that the hydrogen reduction reaction more easily happens on the Cu₃P/g-C₃N₄ than that on g-C₃N₄. On the basis of above results, Cu₃P nanoparticles have two functions in this catalyst: one is promoting charge separation, another is lower the overpotential of HER. Thus, it mainly works as a cocatalyst on the photocatalytic hydrogen evolution of Cu₃P/g-C₃N₄. However, Cu₃P is usually a p-type semiconductor and g-C₃N₄ is an n-type semiconductor. A p-n junction will form by putting these two together, and then the photogenerated electron easily flows from p-type semiconductor to the n-type one. If Cu₃P work as a cocatalyst, the photogenerated electron should flow from g-C₃N₄ to Cu₃P, and the HER reaction carries out on the Cu₃P site. These two case are contradictory.

To disclose the charge flow direction, the energy level of the Cu₃P and g- C₃N₄ need to be first known. The optical properties are investigated to make determine the energy level of Cu₃P and g-C₃N₄. Fig. 5a and b show diffuse reflectance spectroscopy (DRS) UV-vis

spectra of g-C₃N₄, Cu₃P/g-C₃N₄ and Cu₃P. The corresponding Tauc plots are displayed as insets. Cu₃P exhibits broad absorption in the whole visible light region due to the presence of vacancies. Comparing with g-C₃N₄, Cu₃P/g-C₃N₄ shows similar spectrum as g-C₃N₄ besides the slight increase of the baseline. These results illustrate Cu₃P has a slight contribution to the light absorption in the composites. It is noted that the absorption edge of g-C₃N₄ is almost unchanged after decoration of Cu₃P nanoparticles on the surface, indicating that it does not form Cu and P atoms doped g-C₃N₄. The band gap of composite has no change with g-C₃N₄. The optical band gap can be drawn from the Tauc plot. They are 2.79 and 1.41 eV for g-C₃N₄ and Cu₃P, respectively. valance band (VB) XPS spectra are exhibited in the Fig. 5c and d. The VB position of g-C₃N₄ and Cu₃P are 1.71 and 0.89 eV, respectively. Due to the cation vacancies, the tail response is observed in the VB XPS spectrum of Cu₃P. The conduction band (CB) positions of g-C₃N₄ and Cu₃P were calculated to be -1.0 and -0.51 eV, respectively, according to the equation: $E_{VB} = E_{CB} + E_g$ [46]. The Mott-Schottky analysis is applied to identify the types of conductivity for g-CN and Cu₃P (Fig. 5e and f). Linear region of $1/C^2$ (C is the capacitance) v.s. the applied potential can be fitted with the Mott-Schottky equation. The positive slope of the line suggests n-type conductivity of g-C₃N₄, while the negative linearity implies the p-type conductivity of Cu₃P. The corresponding intercept to the x-axis provides the flatband potential, which can be taken as a reference for Fermi level of the semiconductor. As shown in Fig. 6e and f, the pure g-C₃N₄ and Cu₃P are n- and p-type semiconductors with the flatband potential of -0.86 and 0.54 V v.s. RHE.

On the basis of above results, the energy band structures of Cu₃P and g-C₃N₄ before forming junction are shown in the Fig. S5a. The Fermi level of g-C₃N₄ is higher than that of Cu₃P. When Cu₃P was loaded onto g-C₃N₄, two semiconductors has same Fermi level since heterojunction forms. Fig. S6a shows the VB XPS of CC-1.0. It discloses that the VB of CC-1.0 is about 1.71 eV indicating the VB of g-C₃N₄ was kept after loading Cu₃P onto g-C₃N₄. The Mott-Schottky plot of CC-1.0 as shown in Fig. S6b illustrates that the flatband potential turns to -0.49 eV indicating the Fermi level shift to -0.49 eV after form the junction. Then the energy level diagram of CC-1.0 will be shown in Fig.

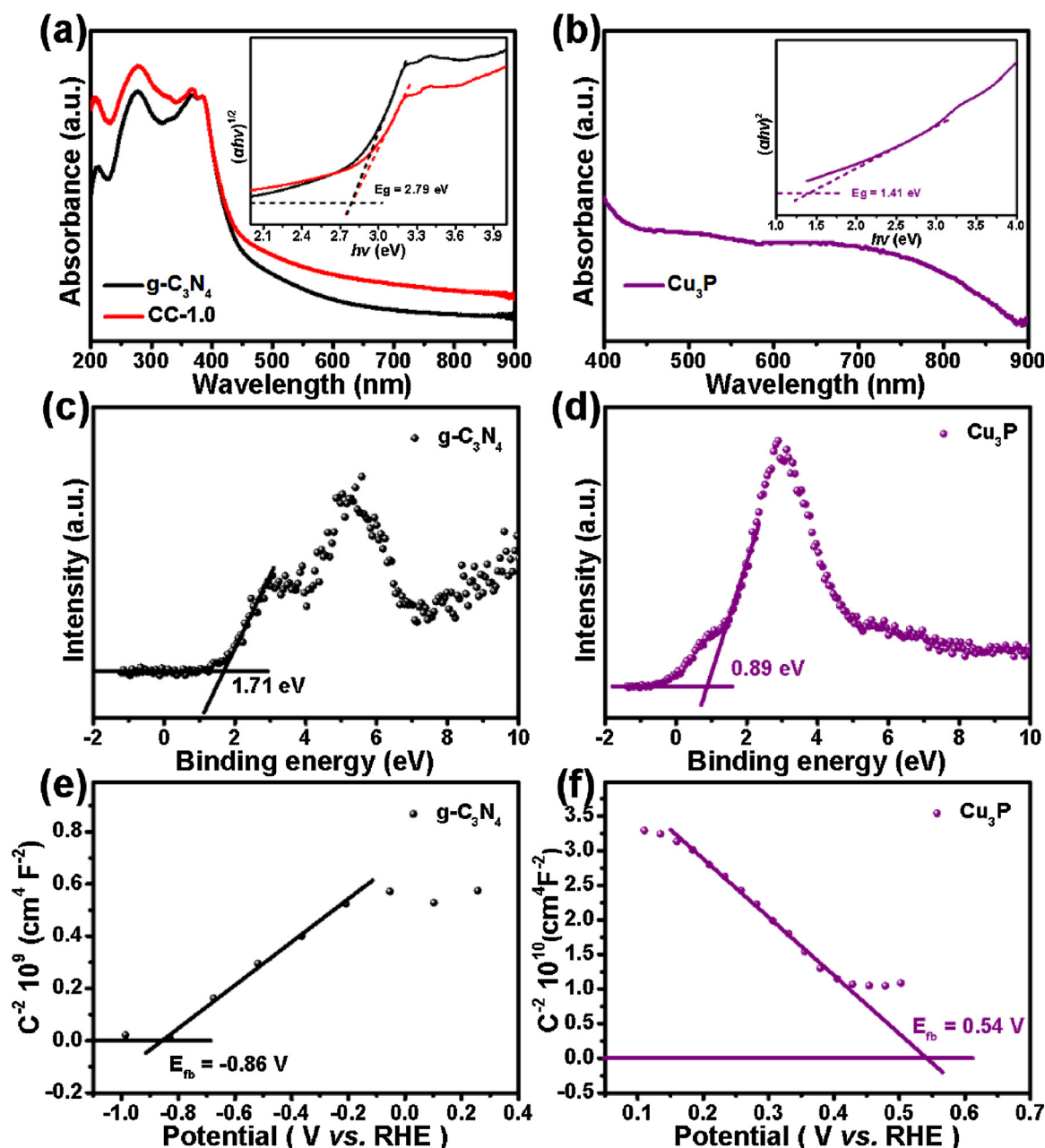


Fig. 5. (a, b) UV-vis spectra of g-C₃N₄, CC-1.0, and pure Cu₃P. The insets are the corresponding Tauc plots. (c, d) valence band XPS spectra of g-C₃N₄ and Cu₃P. (e, f) Mott-Schottky plots of g-C₃N₄ and Cu₃P.

S5b. In general, p-type Cu₃P contacts with n-type g-C₃N₄, the p-n junction is a favor to form without light irradiation [36,42,47]. If so, the photogenerated electron tends to transfer from Cu₃P to g-C₃N₄. Then the active site of H₂ production should locate on the g-C₃N₄. It seems to contradict the function of Cu₃P as a cocatalyst.

To verify the photogenerated electron transfer direction, photo-deposition of Pt nanoparticles was conducted on the Cu₃P/g-CN composite catalyst. Fig. S7a and S7b show the UV-vis spectra of Rhodamine B (RhB) aqueous solution during the photocatalytic degradation with the presence of g-C₃N₄ and CC-1.0. CC-01.0 exhibits similar photocatalytic degradation behavior and activity for RhB as g-C₃N₄ (Fig. S7b). However, the Cu₃P has relatively poor photocatalytic degradation activity. In order to identify the active species in the photocatalytic degradation process, different radical scavenger and inhibitor were employed [48–50]. Among them, TEOA and IPA are the hole (h⁺) and hydroxyl radical (·OH) scavengers and N₂ is an inhibitor of superoxide

radical. For pure g-C₃N₄, when TEOA was added into the reaction, the degradation rate was greatly decrease indicating the holes play important role in the degradation reaction. When the reaction proceeded in the N₂ environment, the degradation rate is also slowed down indicating that the production of superoxide radical was depressed due to O₂ concentration is decreased in the solution. However, the hydroxyl radical has slightly effect on the degradation reaction. In the case of CC-1.0, we can find the holes and hydroxyl radical have similar behavior as pure g-C₃N₄. At the same time, N₂ also greatly depressed the degradation reaction indicating that superoxide effect is enhanced in the CC-1.0. It further illustrates that the superoxide radical is more easily produced in the CC-1.0 system. If it forms a heterojunction between Cu₃P and g-C₃N₄, the photogenerated hole will be transferred to Cu₃P. And then, the oxidative capability will be greatly decreased due to the VB of Cu₃P is about -0.14 eV. In other words, the hole cannot play the key role in the photocatalytic degradation reaction. On the other hand,

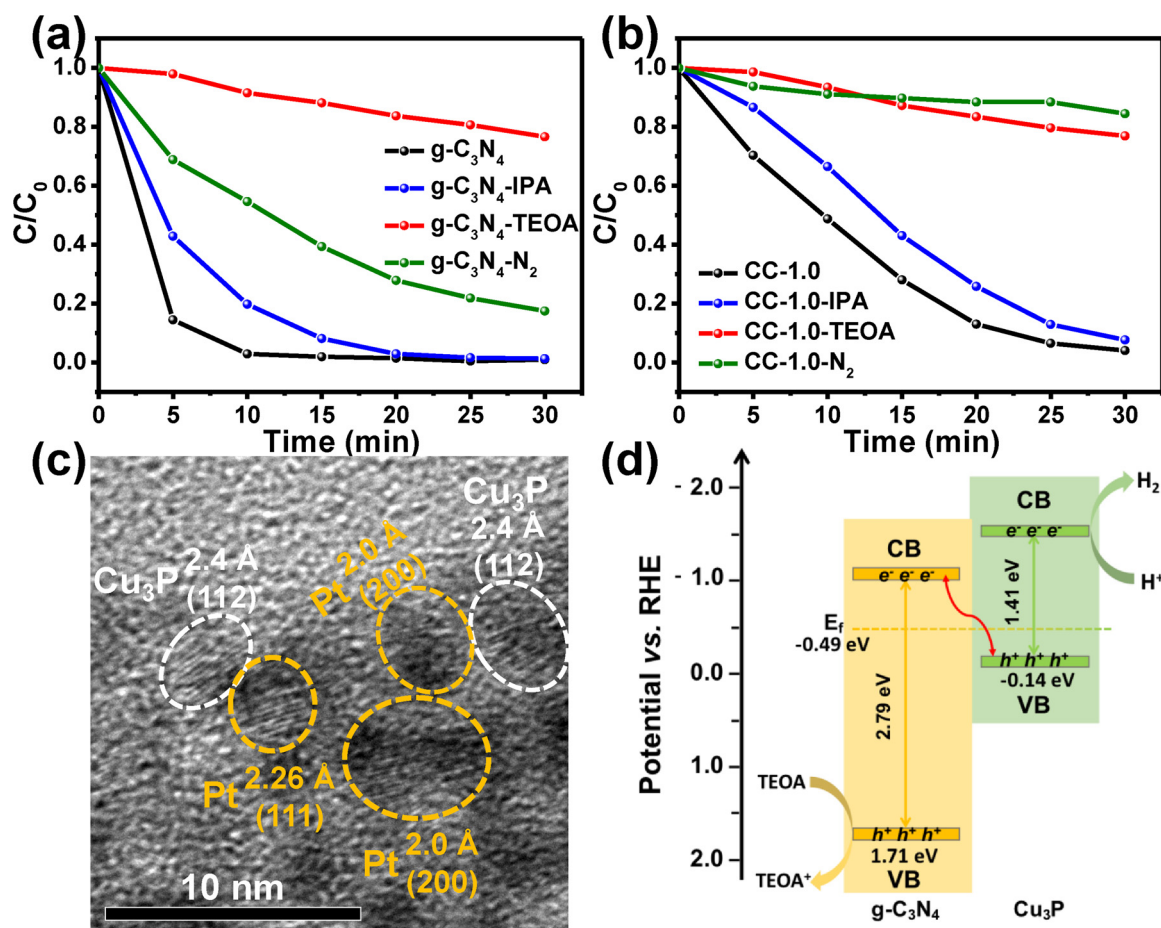


Fig. 6. The relative concentration change of rhodamine B (RhB) aqueous solution with visible light irradiation time in the presence of $g-C_3N_4$ (a) and CC-1.0 (b) with different scavengers (isopropanol alcohol (IPA), triethanol amine (TEOA)) or inhibitors (N_2). (c) HR TEM images of photodeposition of Pt nanoparticles on the CC-1.0. (d) the possible charge transfer mechanism for H_2 production for CC-1.0.

the photogenerated electron was transferred to the $g-C_3N_4$, then superoxide radical effect will similar to $g-C_3N_4$. Thus, we proposed that the photogenerated holes are kept on the $g-C_3N_4$, not transferred to the Cu_3P site. Furthermore, the photodeposition of noble metal Pt was carried out to disclose the site, where the photogenerated electron transfers. Fig. 6c shows the TEM images of $Cu_3P/g-C_3N_4$ loading Pt nanoparticles. Pt nanoparticles are found at the site, where is close to the Cu_3P nanoparticles, indicating that the photogenerated electrons are left on the Cu_3P , not transferred to the $g-C_3N_4$. Thus, we proposed that new charge transfer mechanism as shown in Fig. 6b for the $Cu_3P/g-C_3N_4$ catalyst. Under light irradiation, the p-type semiconductor nanoparticles produce more free holes due to cation vacancies [51]. The free hole is a favor to diffuse toward the space charge region. The photogenerated electron of $g-C_3N_4$ tends to transfer from $g-C_3N_4$ to the space charge region. Then they are recombined in the space charge region and left the electron on the Cu_3P for the hydrogen reduction reaction. The charge transfer route follows Z-scheme. That is the photogenerated electron from $g-C_3N_4$ recombines with the holes of Cu_3P , then the photogenerated electron of Cu_3P is left for H_2 production reaction. That provides a reasonable explanation for how the electron flow from $g-C_3N_4$ to the cocatalyst Cu_3P which has lower overpotential for H_2 reduction.

4. Conclusions

In summary, high surface area $g-C_3N_4$ was synthesized from thiourea with the aid of NH_4Cl as bubble maker. Cu_3P nanoparticles are loaded via $CuCl(OH)_3$ and phosphorization. $Cu_3P/g-C_3N_4$ photocatalyst

exhibits relatively high photocatalytic activity even with the trace amount of Cu_3P . To disclose the function of Cu_3P , various methods illustrate that Cu_3P has two functions in the catalyst system. One is promoting the charge separation, another is lowering the over-potential of HER. Thus, Cu_3P works as a cocatalyst for the composites. Furthermore, we investigate the charge transfer process for the $Cu_3P/g-C_3N_4$. The results indicate that the photogenerated electron was left on the Cu_3P site and hole was kept on $g-C_3N_4$. Based on this, we proposed the charge transfer route follows Z-scheme. That opens a door to explain the p-type semiconductor work as a cocatalyst in the photocatalyst system.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary material related to this article can be found, in the online version, at doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apcatb.2018.09.010>.

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